

THE POLISH REVIEW

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Polish WACS
Welcomed By
Bishop of
San Diego,
California

Americans and
Canadians in
the Polish Army

Where the
War Rages

VOL. IV. No. 31
AUGUST 23, 1944

The captain of the
Polish destroyer
KRAKOWIAK
out on patrol duty.



Address by the Honorable Fiorello H. LaGuardia at Flushing Meadow Park, Queens, N. Y., on August 13, 1944, at the ceremonies marking the removal of the statue of King Wladyslaw Jagiello to its permanent site in Central Park, New York City:

"... We are gathered here today for something far more important than simply to commemorate the movement of this monument from one place to another. We gather here for the purpose of sending a message of assurance to the suffering people of Poland that they are constantly in our minds and their future is in our hearts.

"Poland stands out as the constant reminder of the many, many injustices recorded in history. Her position at this moment is not really very different from what it was 500 years ago when it was under the reign of the patriot whose memory we are paying timely tribute to. She was constantly under attack from the East and the West during all of these centuries.

"Jagiello today is the reminder of the exploitation and oppression of Poland from the East and from the West. The problems that confronted him are the problems of Poland today.

"First, he saw the necessity of the unity of the Polish people and established a sovereign nation. We must remember that he reigned five hundred years or more ago. His government was not a model of economic justice as we understand it today, but he was a leader in education, in the freedom of religion and in the policy of recognizing the rights of neighboring nations, for his diplomacy brought into close contact with his country nations that otherwise would have been fighting each other.

"The World's Fair was planned eight years ago. It was eight years ago that the invitation was sent to the Republic of Poland to participate in our World's Fair. The government at that time with almost uncanny prophetic wisdom selected Jagiello as the symbol of Poland. They knew the situation in Europe. They knew the danger of the Teutonic hordes.

"I think it was the European situation at the time that prompted the Republic of Poland to send the monument of Jagiello to our country.

"Before the World's Fair opened, the Nazi Government withdrew and, as I said at the time, of course they had no place among decent, clean, moral people. Before long the whole world was at war.

"There is some significance in what we are doing today. Just as the selection of the Jagiello monument was prophetic of the modern Poland, so today let the people of Poland know that here in New York on the grounds of the World's Fair, where everything has been removed, the monument of Jagiello still stands.

"Let them know that as the derrick stands ready to lift it, it is not going into the foundry but is taken by the people of the City of New York for safekeeping as we pray for the safekeeping of the liberty and rights of the Polish people.

"Let the people of Poland know as we tenderly take this symbol of Polish determination and Polish independence that we stand firm in backing our President in putting into effect what he said when he proclaimed the Atlantic Charter.

"Boundaries today are not made by a pencil on a map; boundaries today are determined by the will and aspiration of the people living within those boundaries.

"We have tried every other kind of a formula. We have tried boundaries of natural defense that were unnatural in dividing nationalities. We have tried the balance of power formula. All have failed. Let us once try, at least, the God-given formula of people of one blood, of one language, of one nationality, living together if they want to."

"Poland, oh Poland! Most saintly! God-fearing!

Thy hallowed name has become in our keeping

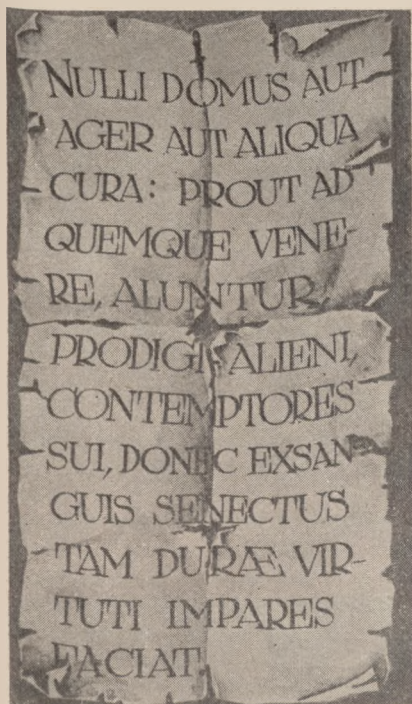
The lightning that flashes, the prayer that is weeping!"

—Juliusz Slowacki (1809-1849)

"Piast Dantyszczek's Poem of Hell"

SCIENCE IN GERMANY*

by PROFESSOR W. SWIETOSLAWSKI



"Germans are wasteful with others' belongings"—Tacitus about Germans, second century A.D.

TO understand the development of science in Germany within the past forty years and forecast events to come, it is necessary to draw a clear distinction between two generations of German scientists. One was active in the period before the last war; the other after the Treaty of Versailles and under Nazi rule.

The former generation of German men of learning had strong nationalist tendencies, but was aware of the fact that the real genesis of modern science goes back to the XVIIIth century in France. They knew that many important dis-

coveries were made in Great Britain, in Italy and in other countries. And so they recognized the importance of international collaboration of all scientists and men of learning. In addition, their intellectual formation was strongly influenced by idealistic philosophy and they recognized that the real progress of human knowledge should be based exclusively on well established facts and on the truth.

To the credit of that generation of German Scientists it should also be said that they recognized the importance of close collaboration between science and industry, German industry of course.

That was why, although benzene was discovered in Great Britain, and the first synthetic dyestuffs were obtained in England and in France, a great industry based on coal tar chemistry was developed in Germany and grew to such an extent before the last war that Germany became the unquestioned leader in that branch of world industry.

At the same time pure science developed in Germany in closest collaboration with eminent scientists abroad. The names of Svante Arrhenius and Van't Hoff may be given as examples.

German universities were open to a large number of young men from abroad, who later became eminent professors in

the United States, Russia, Poland, South America and elsewhere.

The second generation of German scientists worked under quite different conditions. Germany was defeated in 1918 and the Treaty of Versailles was signed. As the result of German propaganda a psychosis—a sort of mass-psycho-pathological disease—spread throughout the German population. What on the whole was a generous treaty was denounced as a "diktat," and revenge on the victorious Allies and the annihilation of the Treaty of Versailles became the fixed idea of the German people.

We have learned an important lesson from that period of time. We have learned that *men of learning are not immune to such psychopathic diseases and that their knowledge affords them no protection.* They become infected, the same as other people.

This is most important, as it explains the attitude of German scientists in the next stage of the development of mass psychosis.

Only thirteen years later Hitler and his associates established a dictatorship in Germany and the two existing aims—revenge and destruction of the Treaty—were supplemented by much more ambitious ideals: the *mastery of the German race, the domination of the world by Germany, and the enslavement of all neighboring countries.*

About that time word came to Washington from the United States Embassy in Berlin to the effect that "the Germans are now governed by psychopaths." This diagnosis was accurate. However, nobody could predict that these psychopaths would be able to infect the entire German nation, including the scientists, with another and much more dangerous disease.

This disease may be expressed in a single word: "*ultra-nationalism.*"

The events that succeeded each other after Hitler came to power show that not only the common people and a group of politicians but the great majority of intelligent people, including the scholars of all types, fell a prey to that psychosis.

No protests, no movements, no strikes, no documents can be found to show that the German people were reluctant to accept ideas that were essentially inhuman, that denied and obliterated everything based on Christianity and the fundamental principles of Western civilization. The entire nation, including its leaders in philosophy, in science, in learning, were convinced that an exceptional opportunity offered—once in a thousand years—to solve all German problems and to establish the German people as the master race of the whole world.

Once such a conviction was created, the *closest collaboration of German scientists with Hitler and his government was ensured.*

Since 1931 and even earlier, German scientists have made

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* Broadcast on The Science Forum over WGY, Schenectady, N. Y., July 19, 1944.

THE POLISH HOME ARMY FIGHTS FOR WARSAW

ON the afternoon of August 1, 1944, heroic, unconquerable Warsaw once again rose in arms against the latest of a long line of oppressors, none of whom have ever been able to hold it for any period of time. The Polish Underground thus paved the way for the approaching Russian Army that was already nearing the outskirts of Praga, Warsaw's eastern suburb.

Almost complete control of the central, western and southern parts of Warsaw was wrested by the Underground from the Germans during the very first phase of the battle. The Polish forces, under the command of General Bor, quickly occupied some 40 per cent of the city. Among their strong points were the East and Wilno railway stations, Marszałkowska Street, main north-south thoroughfare through the city, the central post office, power station and gas works.

So strong was the fight put up by the Underground that the Germans were forced to use tanks and planes as well as considerable numbers of the German Army and Nazi police against General Bor's Home Army units of some 25,000 Polish patriots. The latter forces were supplied mainly by RAF planes that dropped British arms and ammunition over Warsaw. These necessarily small supplies supplemented the material that the Poles hid after the 1939 campaign and some that had subsequently been purchased from the Germans on the black market.

The Poles fought with rifles, machine guns, hand grenades, pistols, and anything they could capture from the Germans. From the first districts captured, General Bor and his forces hampered German transportation across the Poniatowski and Kierbedz Bridges, main routes across the Vistula River. It

* News of the final outcome of the latest Battle of Warsaw had not yet reached the United States when this issue of *The Polish Review* went to press.



Officers of the 77th Infantry Regiment of the Polish Home Army.

is by these bridges that supplies must pass to the German Army still on the eastern bank of the Vistula.

As fast as they took additional parts of the city, General Bor's soldiers erected barbed-wire barricades and road blocks to protect their hard-won positions from German counterblows. Molotoff cocktails, famous improvised bombs used by guerrillas all over Europe, were made in mass quantities by women and girl members of the Underground forces.

During the first days of resistance, at least 18 German tanks as well as countless other armored equipment, along with heavy casualties, forced the Germans to use ever more brutal methods of warfare. The enemy even resorted to the use of Polish civilians not actively participating in the struggle as shields behind which they advanced their tanks. As many as 50 such Poles were reported tied to a single German tank. So bestial was the treatment of Polish prisoners that the Government in London was forced to broadcast that members of the Polish Home Army are



German barbed wire in the burned ruins of what was once the central railway station of Warsaw.

the air; a good sign of how desperate the situation of the Huns had become in Poland's capital.

Fighting during the early stages of the uprising was especially heavy in the Zoliborz district of northern Warsaw where even 12-year old boys helped attack German tanks with home-made gasoline grenades. This part of the city was taken by Poles within the first two days of the battle. Polish soldiers fought from the upstairs windows of family houses, using rifles, grenades, machine-guns and even guns taken

entitled to all rights and privileges granted to soldiers under international agreements and that continued mistreatment by the Germans would be carefully recorded and punished after the war by joint Allied action.

The Germans fired blockhouses all over the city that they were forced to abandon. They also burned whole streets of private houses that might be used by Polish troops. This was particularly true in the suburbs where fighting was most bitter.

For several days, even the German-controlled Warsaw radio ominously went off



Soldier of the Polish Home Army carries a captured German machine-gun.

from immobilized German tanks.

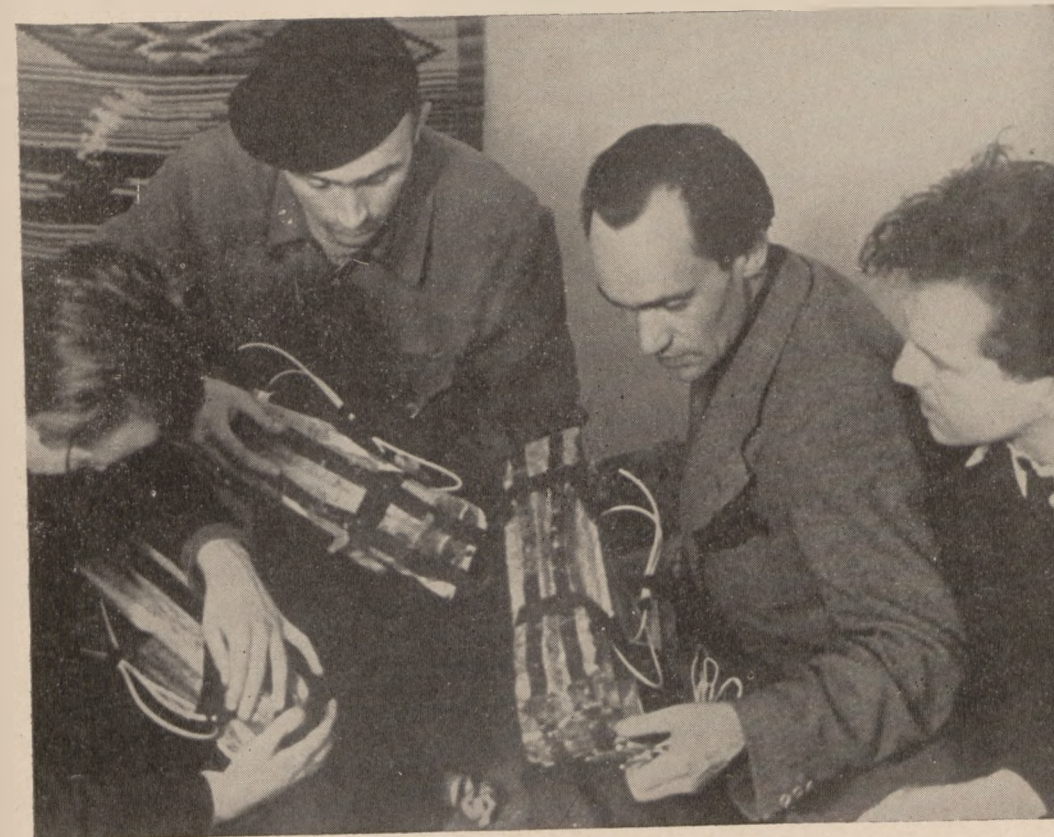
Twelve-year-old boys took a leading part in some of the bitterest fighting in the district that centered around Woodrow Wilson Place. Darting out from barricaded buildings these lads ran up to German tanks attacking Polish positions with their glass bottle grenades.

Another point of desperate, no-quarter fighting was the city's chief east-west street, Jerusalem Alley that connects with the Poniatowski Bridge and leads to Praga, eastern suburb of Warsaw.

General Bor and his Poles held the offensive throughout the first eight days of the insurrection. Many German prisoners were taken in batches ranging up to 200 at a time. Warsaw's streets, General Bor reported to the Polish Government in London, were covered with disabled German tanks and other military vehicles as well as by many German dead.

Warsaw's undaunted women, who have lived through so much during the past five years, par-

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Members of the Polish Home Army examine a mine to be used in blowing up a German-controlled railway bridge.



Fearing underground resistance, the Germans set up control stations in the streets of Warsaw.

The Polish Home Army Fights for Warsaw



The Prudential Building in Warsaw was the center of a fierce battle between the Poles and the Germans.

(Continued from p. 5)
ticipated fully in the battle. "With utmost gallantry," General Bor reported, "did they take charge of the first aid and hospital services." Whenever necessary, these Polish women ran out into the most dangerous parts of the battle zone to dress the wounds of fallen comrades.

General Bor reported further in a detailed account of the action sent to the Government that:

"We are fighting effectively heavy tanks, a number of which we have already destroyed or damaged. The latter already are being used by our troops. Intense fighting is raging in the central and western parts of Warsaw.

"We started the battle for Warsaw August 1 at 5 p.m., but the attacks were not made simultaneously, for in some zones operations



Secret gathering of members of the Polish Home Army.



A Polish hospital in Warsaw converted into a German military base hospital.

started as early as 3 p.m. This did not destroy the general effectiveness of our plan to surprise the Germans but interfered somewhat with the concentration of our troops and the taking by surprise of some objectives which then had to be won by regular attacks.

"The battle was general with centers of action throughout the city. On August 2 enemy attempts to win back objectives and streets that had fallen into our hands were repelled."

General Bor further reported that thousands flocked to join the fight against the Germans, but said that they were hampered by lack of arms and ammunition. The Polish commander said he could plainly hear the rumble of Soviet artillery, but that the Russians had not yet begun direct attacks on the capital city.

General Bor concluded that he was not attempting to drive the Germans out of Warsaw, but that his purpose was to kill as many as possible and to trap the rest, so that they would fall into the hands of the Red Army.

A POLISH SUBMARINE ON PATROL

by JAN SZYLSKI

THE periscope cut through the still blue waters of the bay. For a few seconds only the prism glistened in the sun and ruffled the water's surface. Then, as suddenly as it had appeared, it sank beneath the water. The surface of the sea was again still and even as a blue mirror.

Deep in the water there were three shadows cast by two rocky peaks—Ali-Baba and Kafeteria—and one by the sub.

"N-99" was patrolling the harbor entrance. According to information received, a large convoy was supposed to leave the port "within the next few days."

"Within the next few days," said the sub's commander through gritted teeth, "and here I am, patrolling for 10 days and nights with nary a sign of an enemy convoy."

"Raise the periscope," he said turning to a sailor standing on duty at the hydraulic pumps that operate the periscope. He peered through it, but saw nothing.

"Lower periscope."

"I'll be in the mess," he said turning to a sailor standing on duty at the navigation controls. "Remain on the same course until further orders."

He went through the narrow door to the mess room. The officer in charge of torpedoes sat behind the mess table playing solitaire. The commander picked up a three-month old magazine whose contents he already knew by heart.

In the crew's quarters, a gunner's mate painted a picture of Hitler on a spare torpedo by his bunk. The rest of the crew half dozed on bunks and in hammocks. Night and day are all the same on a submarine. The only break comes at night when the ship surfaces in order to recharge batteries and get some air. Everyone awaits impatiently the moment when he can get his first and only whiff of fresh air in 24 hours and smoke his only cigarette.

The commander threw his magazine into a corner and began studying a map lying on the table. He knew this by heart too. Ali Baba, one of the mountains was on the left, Kafeteria a little further inland, while to the right was a canal alongside of two shoals. "There's probably a minefield to the south of the shoals," he thought, measuring distances with a compass. Mechanically he glanced at his watch; it



Officers and men of the Polish submarine, SOKOL, with their Jolly Roger flag of success and a captured German flag on their return to base.

was 2:40 p.m.

"Perhaps we should slip into the port," he thought. "If the mountain won't come to Mohammed—perhaps I should attack the convoy in there."

"Take our bearings," he called to the officer of the watch. He thought of the mines, submarine nets and sound-detecting apparatus of the enemy, but decided that it was worth taking the risk.

After finding their position on the map, he directed the course to 130° and told the navigator to dive the U-boat to a depth of 40 feet. Half speed ahead, the sub slowly turned to the new course. The commander smiled at the lieutenant who could not hide his uneasiness.

"Raise the periscope," but he saw nothing. "Lower periscope." Suddenly a terrific concussion jarred the ship. For a moment all lights failed. Somewhere overhead on the surface there had been a light explosion. The whole sub rocked from side to side. The log slowed. The ship had come to a full stop. "Either a net or a sand bar," thought the commander.

"Stop all motors, before the propellers are enmeshed in the net."

"Fill the ballast tanks, so that we won't surface."

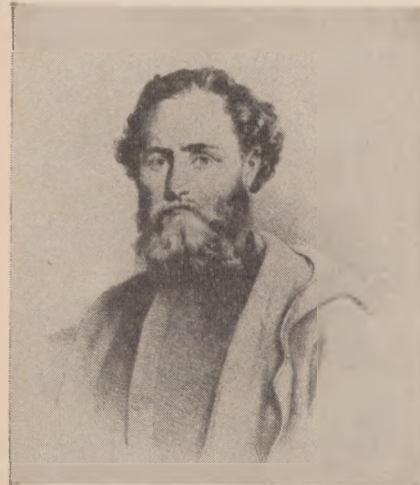
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Polish submarines, SOKOL and DZIK, in a Mediterranean port.

WHEN POLES ROSE AGAINST GERMANS IN 1848

by WALTER C. BOW



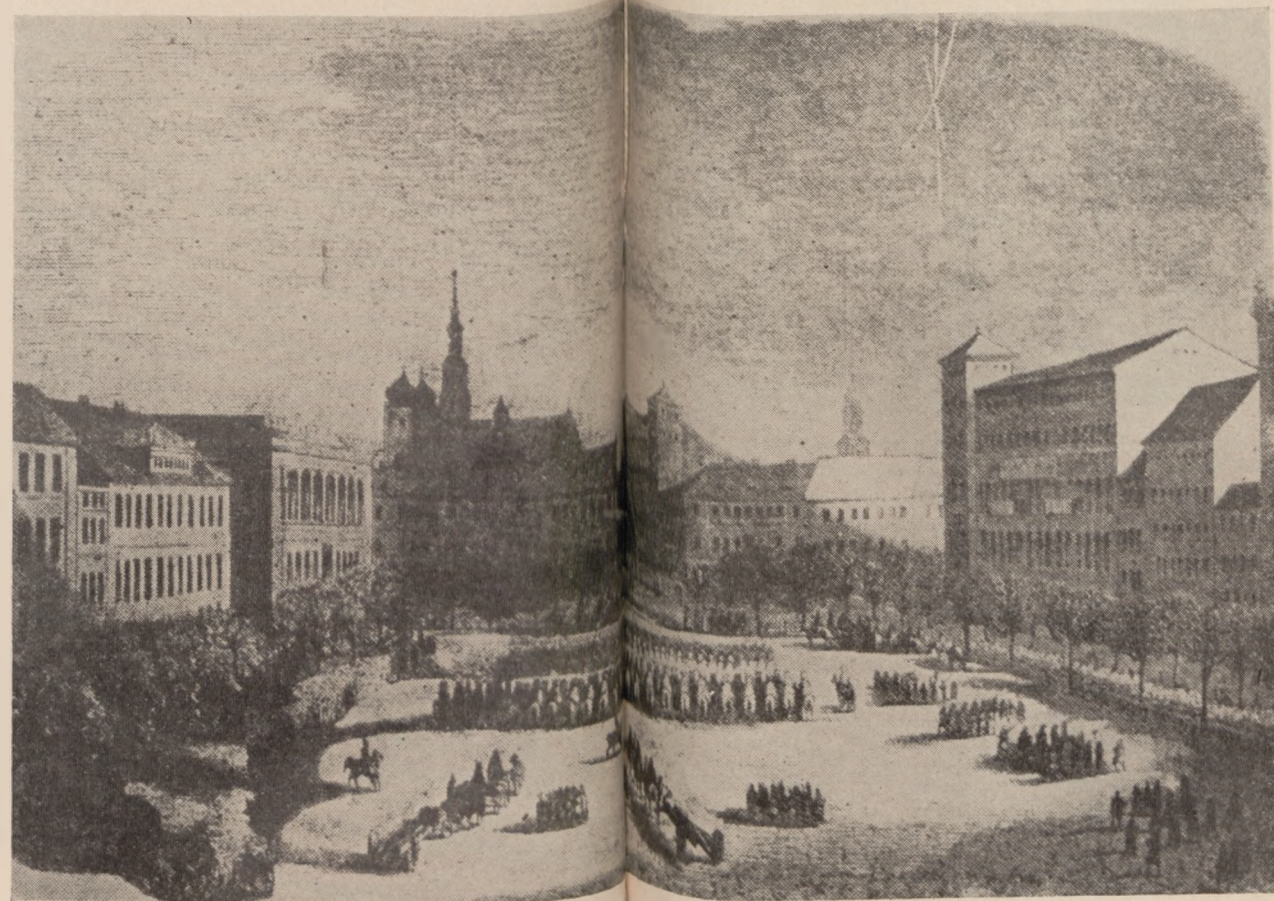
Collection of Polish National Library in Warsaw
Ludwik Mieroslawski, leader of the Polish Uprising in 1848, by A. Fontaine.

WHEN the crimes of the partitions of Poland were committed in 1772, 1793 and 1795, the Western provinces of Poznan, Silesia and Pomerania were appropriated by Prussia. For almost a century and a half the Germans tried to assimilate the Poles of Western Poland, but they failed dismally. Neither cajolery nor persecution could destroy the Polish national spirit. The Poles struck back in all the ways they could until the insurrections

at the close of World War I restored much of the stolen territories to Poland. Although Polish resistance in Western Poland consisted mostly of economic and underground warfare, there were moments in the dark century of oppression when these Poles openly revolted. No less than 12,000 Poles from the so-called Grand Duchy of Poznan and Prussia crossed the border to participate in the ill-fated insurrection of 1830 that took place in the Russian-held part of Poland.

The Prussian government retaliated by imprisoning 1,400 of them, confiscating their property or imposing heavy fines. Edward Flottwell, "President" of the Poznan Grand Duchy, embarked on an anti-Polish policy in the tradition of Frederick II. His aim as expressed in his report to King Frederick Wilhelm IV was "to destroy everything that might interfere with the complete union of the Duchy with the Prussian monarchy." The Germanizing campaign was directed against those who had taken part in the insurrection, and against the gentry and clergy whom he regarded as the "determined enemies of the government." In 1833 all convent property was confiscated and handed over to Protestants or turned into barracks, prisons and schools. The arrest of Polish Archbishop Dunin in 1838 stirred violent anti-German feeling among the townspeople and peasants. Flottwell declared war on Polish townspeople by supporting German industry and artisans and refusing to grant Poles permission to open factories. A million talars were spent to buy out Polish property and state banks would not grant credits to Polish applicants. To decrease the political influence of the Poles, the use of the Polish language was restricted, German being made the official language. German schools were founded and the teaching of German became obligatory in all schools in 1842.

The Poles of Poznania were determined to counteract this official German persecution. But opinion was divided as to the proper means. One camp, headed by Dr. Karol Marcinkowski, held that resistance should be economic and directed at improving the standard of living of peasants and workers, and only become military when the economic advantages had been gained. Hence, forbidden access to government jobs, the Poles turned to trades, free professions and commerce. Marcinkowski organized Polish institutions, stores, workshops, banks, credit houses. Through his efforts a "Polish Bazaar" was built in Poznan, which in addition to being a hotel and housing Polish stores, also had rooms available for Polish societies. Under the slogan of democratic equality he



Collection of Polish National Library in Warsaw
Prussian troops occupy the Place of Liberty in Poznan March 21, 1848. After a contemporary engraving.

founded a society to help poor students with their studies, agricultural societies as well as recreational clubs in towns designed to bring country people in contact with city people.

But the other camp believed that nationalist and democratic agitation should be begun immediately without waiting for economic improvement. And it maintained that the date for an armed insurrection against the invaders should be set for the near future. The leaders of this group were Karol Libelt and Jędrzej Moraczewski. Libelt, a veteran of the rising of 1830, was a democrat of great integrity and a famous political writer. Pockmarked and ugly, he radiated a magnetic charm that won him devoted personal friends and adherents to the cause. Moraczewski, also an ex-insurgent of 1830 and a political writer, had been active in Poznan's economic life. With Libelt he organized public lectures in the Poznan "Bazaar," but this improvised University was closed a year later by the Germans.

It was the democratic Libelt camp's view that prevailed over the conservative Marcinkowski camp. Secret political organizations were formed. Libelt took over the chairmanship of the *Alliance of the Polish Nation*, popularly known as the *Central Poznan Alliance*, that was based on the manifesto of the Polish Democratic Society of 1836. The *Alliance* held that "the people are the sole master, the law is the sole ruler of the people, and the will of the people constitutes the sole law." Its duties were to foster democratic ideas, combat privileges, superstition and bigotry, and collect funds, weapons and ammunition. Its aim was to bring about an insurrection in all Poland, against all three aggressors at "the same hour of the same day." The *Alliance* hoped this could be accomplished without outside help if the peasants were

induced to take up arms by being given land.

In Poznan, fuel was added to this political activity by emigrants and refugees who fled from Russian-occupied Poland to Prussian-held Poland between 1842 and 1844 to escape being drafted into the Czarist Army. Although many were imprisoned or forced to work at hard labor, some 600 intellectuals, young gifted political leaders, were permitted to remain at liberty. Working at menial jobs for a living, they brought a feverish element into Poznan's political life. Among them were such revolutionary leaders as the poet Roman Zmorski, the novelist Bohdan Dziekonski, the political writers Edward Dembowski and Henryk Kamieński.

Meanwhile, the left-wing Polish emigrés in France had created a *Polish Democratic Society* whose purpose was to restore an independent democratic Poland with her pre-partition boundaries. Their only hope to bring this about was to launch a revolution in Poland that would give the Poles political and social freedom. At the head of this *Society* was the so-called *Centralization*. Subordinate to the *Centralization* was the *Poznan Central Committee*. Through their emissaries and publications the *Centralization* and the *Poznan Central Committee* carried on revolutionary activity in all Poland.

As the call to rise against the Germans grew more impatient in Poznan, the *Centralization* sent the well-known military and political writer, Ludwik Mieroslawski, from Paris to Poznan in March, 1845, to check on the state of insurrectional readiness in Poznan. Mieroslawski opined that the preparations were inadequate and recommended a one-year postponement of the revolt. However, after his departure, the Poznan Poles decided to go ahead. A blueprint of Poznan's fortress was obtained and plans were laid to seize the symbol of Prussian oppression. Unfortunately the Prussians were warned of the projected coup and its leaders—Malczewski, Lipinski and Stefanski—were arrested. (Please turn to page 10)



Collection of Polish National Library in Warsaw
Polish political prisoners freed from a Berlin jail in 1848. After a contemporary engraving

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Whereupon the Poznan Central Committee sent out district agents with instructions, ordered horses, ammunition and arms to be prepared, and asked the Centralization immediately to delegate Mieroslawski to Poznan.

The Centralization complied. It instructed Mieroslawski "to act with great caution" and if the preparations were inadequate, to prevent the insurrection. Arriving in Poznan, Mieroslawski saw he could not prevent the outbreak of the revolt. So he left instructions for the leaders

of the imminent rising and proceeded to Cracow to represent with Karol Libelt the Poznan group at the all-Poland conference that was to prepare a general national uprising. February 21, 1846, was set as the date for the insurrection and Mieroslawski was elected its commander. Counting on the declaration of the peasants for the insurrection, the friendly attitude of Prussian liberals, and the anti-Russian attitude of the Berlin Government, as well as on the disablement of Austria by the revolt of the Hungarians and Czechs, he hoped to organize a regular army that would operate simultaneously in the Prussian-, Austrian-, and Russian-held parts of Poland.

Before time had fully proved the unreality of these calculations, Mieroslawski, Libelt and the Staff of conspirators were arrested in February, 1846. At Poznan 700 Poles were arrested, many peasants among them. Two hundred and fifty-four were placed on trial and the affair focused European attention on Poland. The prisoners, including Mieroslawski and Libelt, were sent to Berlin for trial. On August 3, 1847, Mieroslawski delivered an impassioned address in



Polish political prisoners in the Moabit Prison in Berlin, 1847. After a contemporary engraving.

the courtroom. Translated and commented upon by the European press, it lent prestige to the Polish cause. Condemning the Germans for their aggression toward Poland, he declared that every Pole still alive and breathing plotted against the aggressors. Although Pope Pius IX appealed to the Kaiser to free the Poles, the verdict of December 2, 1847, was severe: Mieroslawski and seven associates were sentenced to death, seven to life imprisonment in the Berlin citadel, and 43 to prison terms of from 2 to 25 years.

Following the unsuccessful coup in 1846, the Germans intensified their anti-Polish activity. Every village felt the mailed fist of the state prosecutor. Virtually every enterprising peasant spent some time in prison. The brutality of Prussian officials and soldiers roused the peasants from their lethargy. Women and children became the bearers of national propaganda. Memorial services, religious processions and observances of national anniversaries were regarded as acts of national piety. The public execution of Antoni Bobinski, a Polish patriot, profoundly stirred the Poles and was the occasion of widespread manifestations of mourning.

The organizers of these memorial services were arrested and young girls of 13 to 20 became national heroines.

The Prussian police in Poznan along with its agents in Paris and the Balkans studied the Polish movement, but nothing could now stop it. It had become a part of the prevailing mood of 1848, which considered the Polish question one of the most important problems of the Spring of the Nations. Revolutions broke out in Italy and France, followed by outbreaks in Vienna and Berlin. Russian Czar Nicholas, hearing of the March Revolution in Prussia, prepared armed intervention. Fearing a Russian invasion, the Germans began to demonstrate their friendship for the Poles and made generous concessions in the first days of the Revolution. But when Russia changed her plans and decided

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Prussian Hussars massacre defenseless Polish veterans of the 1831 uprising. After a contemporary engraving.

THE YIVO—SYMBOL OF WILNO JEWRY

by S. NOBLE, Assistant to Research Director of the YIVO

FOREMOST among Jewish communities in Poland, and, indeed, all Eastern Europe, was the community of Wilno. Boasting of a history almost coextensive with the foundation of the city, the Jewry of Wilno at its best represented a remarkable blend of wisdom and piety, veneration of the old and tireless quest of the new. Jewish traditionalism found its staunchest defender in the person of Rabbi Elijah, known throughout the Jewish world as the Gaon of Wilno. On the other hand the spirit of modern enlightenment and progress found its earliest devotees among East European Jews in Wilno, and for a while the name of that city came to be synonymous with progress and modern culture. If Wilno could glory in the possession of a large number of Yeshivos (academies of Jewish traditional studies) it also had the distinction of being the home of the first organized Jewish secular school-system. It was the birthplace of the Jewish labor party, "Bund," and center of Zionist activities. The famous printing establishment of Romm in Wilno broadcast, on the title-page of Talmudical folios, the name of that city to the remotest corners of the world, just as the legend of Count Potocki "the righteous proselyte" sank the roots of Jewry deeply into the soil of Wilno.

It was in that city that a group of scholars and communal leaders met in March, 1925, for the purpose of establishing an academic institution that would be a synthesis of the old and the new, combine a study of Jewish life in all its manifestations with the methods of modern scholarship and research, and reinterpret the past and the present in terms of contemporary and future significance. The institution then founded was the Yiddish Scientific Institute, generally known as the YIVO. And as its home was chosen the city of Wilno. With the subsequent growth of the institution branches were established in other cities and countries, and ultimately some of these branches, as the one in Paris and the one in the U. S. A., carried on autonomous research work.

Materially, the situation of the YIVO was never too bright. The institution was no beneficiary of state subsidies and depended for its support in the main upon a very impoverished community. One is moved to humility upon scanning the lists of contributions that came in from obscure townships and villages in sums of five, seven and ten *zlotys*. But they came, those meager sums, saved from the mouths of



Office of the YIVO Archives in Wilno.

poor folk, came in a continuous trickle, and enabled the YIVO to take root, to grow and to prosper.

The poverty in material means, however, was more than compensated by the enthusiasm and resourcefulness of its founders and the selfless devotion of its friends. With these as its main assets, the YIVO proceeded gradually to the implementation of its program. The entire research schedule was divided into the following four sections under the direction of their respective secretaries: a section for history; language and literature; economics and statistics; and psychology and education. The results of the studies and research were to be made available to the public by means of appropriate publications and academic meetings and conferences. In addition to its own particular research activity, the section for history undertook to found and administer archives for the preservation and classification of original documents, manuscripts and other source material. Similarly, the section for languages and literature expanded its scope to include a commission for bibliography, whose function it was to record the current literary productions by Jews in all languages as well as writings by non-Jews bearing upon Jewish problems, and a commission for folklore, whose task it was to gather and classify the wealth of that material circulating among the Jewish people. Besides, a library and a museum were founded to serve the needs of all the four sections and scholars at large.

The response to the YIVO on the part of Polish—and for that matter all of East European—Jewry was most heartening. When the
(Please turn to page 14)



Entrance to the YIVO Institute in Wilno.

Polish WACS Welcomed by Bishop of San Diego, California

During their tour of the West Coast, the Polish WACS were granted an audience with the Most Reverend Charles Francis Buddy, Bishop of San Diego, who rendered four sermons in St. Joseph Cathedral, San Diego, in tribute to the people of Poland.



SCIENCE IN GERMANY

(Continued from page 3)

every effort to find the best methods of manufacturing old and new weapons of war and to find substitutes for civilian needs in war time.

Unlimited financial support was given by the government. Institutes of scientific and industrial research were engaged in carrying out investigations inspired by the General Staff and by the industrialists who have been under constant pressure from military circles.

German achievements have been important, of course. This is easy to understand, if one takes into consideration what has been done in the United States in a much shorter time. Given a great number of well trained young men well directed by an older generation of scientists with the requisite knowledge and broad experience, the progress of science may always be assured. Also when industry is properly developed, the results of scientific investigations find rapid industrial application.

The following instances will give some idea of what has been done in Germany in the past twenty years:

First of all, two different methods of making synthetic gasoline have been elaborated. This was the only way to supply the army and, to some extent, the civilians with the minimum of gasoline, if the Rumanian and Polish oil fields were cut off.

The rubber problem was solved in Germany at the right time and in the proper way. The chemistry of cellulose has been developed to such an extent that not only all war needs could be secured but some food substitutes manufactured. New methods of smelting iron from poor ores have been elaborated. All investigations of military importance were carried out in great secrecy. Not only foreigners but even the Germans knew nothing of these investigations. For instance specialists in aviation knew much more about the experiments with rockets and rocket planes in Italy, than about what was being done at the same time in Germany.

Extensive preparations were made by the Germans for

chemical and bacteriological warfare. The results of these scientific and industrial investigations have not as yet been applied in this war.

The results obtained by Germany should cause no surprise. Even if it be assumed that most of this progress has been made in Germany in ten years, this is still five times more than the time taken by the United States to prepare everything for defense. Besides, in the United States everything has been done on a much larger scale than in Germany.

However the strength and creative power of German scholars should not be underestimated. Their activity may once more become a menace to the world, if after this war as after the last, Germany—including the men of learning—is allowed to remain psychologically unchanged.

After Germany is defeated no peace terms that can be devised will ever be acceptable to the German people, and a new psychosis is virtually inevitable. But if German industry is taken under control, a broad field for the activity of all men of learning may be still open. Otherwise new inventions in quite new fields of science may be found by the Germans to hold the democratic nations under constant alarm.

Scientists of the United Nations must realize that this so-called "one world" in which we live is not an homogeneous world. In numerous places of the earth thousands of factors may be found to cause trouble to the United Nations.

Entirely new weapons, different not only in shape and striking power but in their action may be invented. New methods of psychological warfare may be found more effective than those that led to Hitler's rule in Germany and Mussolini's in Italy.

Knowing what science has achieved in Germany under Hitler, we must be prepared to prevent the destructive activity of the German scientists tomorrow, if they appear as trouble makers in the future, again threatening the peace of the world.

AMERICANS AND CANADIANS IN THE POLISH ARMY

by JANUSZ LASKOWSKI

WHEN, after the fall of Poland in the autumn of 1939, General Sikorski formed a new Polish Army abroad, many foreign volunteers swelled its ranks. In particular, Americans and Canadians make up a large part of the volunteers now serving in this army. Not long ago these Polish soldiers from the Western Hemisphere met in a convention held in England.

One of the outstanding American volunteers who attended this gathering is a lieutenant who came up through the ranks. A man who is a loyal soldier of Poland despite the fact that he is not even of Polish descent.

Lieutenant Richard Tice does not like to be called by his military title. "I'm 'Dick,'" he tells his colleagues.

Lieutenant Tice joined the Polish Army three years ago. Although he is an American, not of Polish descent, he remained with the Polish Army even after Pearl Harbor. He took his basic training in Canada along with many other American volunteers. Upon arrival in Great Britain he was assigned to the Polish Parachute Brigade. Now he is a lieutenant. During his three years with the Polish Army, Dick has learned to speak Polish surprisingly well. He can express himself fluently on all subjects from problems of international politics to the latest Allied military triumphs.

Nevertheless, he still has his American smile, big and whole-hearted, that lights up his face and is accompanied by a deep, heartfelt chuckle.

Whatever caused him to join the Polish ranks? The answer to that is not very hard. Military legends, feats, heroes and victories catch the imagination of all peoples and all nations. Dick, along with the rest of the Allied world, was deeply moved by news of the heroic stand made by Poland in 1939 against Hitler's hordes and by the subsequent Polish participation in United Nations battles and victories on land, sea, and in the air. Three years ago, when it became apparent that the present war is being waged for a better and more just future world Dick decided to help build that brighter tomorrow. And what nation had a better or more just cause to avenge than Poland?

The gathering of volunteers from America and Canada in the Polish Armed Forces was proof that Poland not only was not forgotten by the world, but that her Allies bore great love and respect for her.

About 50 volunteer soldiers and airmen gathered in an English mess hall. Among those 50 were only two officers—Dick and another American of Polish descent. Despite all difficulties, not one of these young men regretted joining the Polish Army. They had not come for glory nor for quick advancement, something that is impossible in the Polish Army, yet they were nevertheless happy to serve, to feel that they too were helping the cause of freedom.

The Polish Army has done everything in its power to make the life of these volunteers as pleasant as possible, as well as

to assure them full veterans' privileges after the war. This has been done through a committee especially set up for the purpose of taking care of American volunteers.

The meeting was carried on in an atmosphere of friendliness, ideas and opinions were frankly exchanged. It was an American kind of a meeting, businesslike, short and to the point.

Dick, the versatile graduate of officers' candidate school, enlivened the informal evening sessions with his piano playing.

One of the meetings was opened with a mass for lost comrades. Thus far eleven of these American and Canadian volunteers have lost their lives, seven airmen and four sailors. The commander of the Polish Forces in the British Isles, General Gluchowski, attended one of the meetings of the convention. Another was a dear comrade of the ranks, Dolacinski, a volunteer in both

wars, who was chosen chairman of the convention. During the first World War he had been the youngest private in General Haller's Armies. In the present conflict he is an experienced and valuable veteran soldier.

Speeches by Poles from France and Belgium, as well as an address by a government representative recently returned from a mission to Poland, were highlights of the convention. After the end of the formal meetings, the soldier delegates enjoyed dancing and an impromptu concert by an orchestra of soldiers from Lwow.

The present world situation seems less harsh and hopeless when one considers that in the fu-

ture all nations will be able to smile like the American volunteers in the Polish Army.



An American in the Polish Army: Lieutenant Richard Tice.

A POLISH SUBMARINE ON PATROL

(Continued from page 7)

Everyone was excited, though they tried hard not to show it. "What would happen next?" they all thought.

A second bomb exploded above the vessel. The executive officer ran up to the control room.

"We're caught in the net," he told the commander. The submarine had come to a full stop, the stern slowly sank, causing the ship to list slightly.

"Half speed astern."

Everyone was tense. Would the submarine free itself or was the rudder hopelessly entangled in the net?

"Both engines working!" called the engine room over the intercommunication system.

A long, seemingly endless, moment passed. Drops of moisture dotted the periscope tube. Faces shone with sweat. Then, the ship moved slightly. It seemed to be free at last.

"We're getting out!" called the boatswain from below.

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A POLISH SUBMARINE ON PATROL

(Continued from page 13)

"We're getting out!" laughed the navigator. Something grated against the side plates of the Polish ship. The crew felt rather than heard the rubbing of the steel net against their ship.

"Hurrah!" cried the crew. The lieutenant and the commander pounded each other's backs in joy.

"Left motor stop. Course 310°—left motor half speed ahead!"

Since it was necessary to determine the exact position of the net, as well as to see whether any enemy vessels were giving chase, the periscope was raised. Only an empty sea again came into view. No ships were about.

"Lower the periscope! Are there any damages?" asked the commander. The sailors stationed around the periscope were drenched by leaking water, but the crack was quickly patched.

"Everything is shipshape, sir," replied the second in command.

"We'll withdraw to a safe distance," the captain decided. During the night, light damage that was discovered on the hull and radio antenna was easily repaired. Then followed another boring day of patrolling. The next night was spent drifting, half-surfaced, about the mouth of the harbor. The

watch noticed two destroyers, but no merchant ships. Undoubtedly the latter were hidden in camouflaged piers.

The captain decided once more to try his luck at entering the port. During the day the sub remained near the entrance, but during the afternoon an attack came. The alarm to stand by for action was sounded at 4 p.m. The commander stood glued to the periscope. One large destroyer was observed near the entrance, while another could be seen a little further away, between the two mountains.

At 4:05 p.m., the commander ordered, "Torpedo tube No. 1, ready, fire!"

Ten seconds later a second, then a third tin fish was fired. After 27 seconds, there was an explosion, followed closely by a second. Two Polish torpedoes had found their mark.

Then it was time to beat a hasty retreat in order to reload torpedo tubes. After fifteen minutes the sound-detecting apparatus warned of an approaching surface vessel. Then explosions were heard overhead. The smaller destroyer had come out to avenge the sinking of the large one.

The Polish submarine sank to the bottom of the ocean. Depth bombs continued to explode all about it, but none found its mark. The next day marked the end of its patrol.

The "N-99" returned to its base. On its mast hung the Jolly Roger flag—traditional mark of victorious hunting.

THE YIVO—SYMBOL OF WILNO JEWRY

(Continued from page 11)

museum and archives issued their call for contributions of appropriate materials, the office of the institution was literally swamped with objects, great and small, priceless and trivial, rare and commonplace, sent in from the remotest parts. Young men and women spared neither time nor effort, nor expense, in gathering material for the folklore collection in outlying districts at times under trying circumstances.

Some two years after its establishment, the YIVO presented to the world of scholarship two volumes on philology, a volume on economics and statistics, and a volume on history. The high scholarly level of these publications and their novelty of approach to Jewish social problems at once arrested the attention of academic circles. For the YIVO applied the field-method of investigation to the widest possible extent. In its studies of the occupational structure of the Jews, the section on economics and statistics compiled an exhaustive questionnaire and spared no effort to reach with it the largest number of people. Again, wishing to gain an insight into the temper and the ideals of youth—and of Jewish youth in particular—in the *interbellum* period, the YIVO sponsored several autobiographical contests. These contests brought in over 600 autobiographies, comprising 100,000 written pages of a unique material. In a like manner, in its research in history and philology, the YIVO laid great stress on the specific regional character and *locale* of the district under consideration.

On the basis of these publications and other means of academic exchange, the world of scholarship granted the Yivo recognition and entered into collaborative relationship with it. A number of scholars, Jews and non-Jews alike, at once realized the significance some of the specifically Jewish problems have for general scholarship: the possibility that light gained in a limited area may be successfully applied to a much wider field. Thus, a professor at the University of Vienna consulted the YIVO concerning problems bearing on East European languages. An Estonian philologist, professor at the University of Tartu, contributed to the YIVO publications and lectured at the institution, and Professor John Dollard, the distinguished sociologist of Yale University, accepted a call from the Yivo to deliver a series of lectures as visiting professor. The extent to which the institution has gained the confidence of the academic world can

best be gauged from the fact that men of international renown like Einstein and Freud served on its *curatorium*.

In 1930, the YIVO through the efforts of its friends managed to acquire a modest but comfortable three-story structure on *Wiculskiego* 18. These much-needed and long overdue own quarters came to house the library which had grown to a considerable size, the archives, the museum, and the newly-established *Yivo Bleter*, organ of all the four sections. At this point a new want manifested itself: the opening of a school for the training of qualified research men to continue the tradition of the YIVO in the future. That want was fulfilled five years later with the establishment of the *Aspirantur*, a coeducational graduate research division in Jewish social studies. The Dr. Cemach Szabad Aspirantur, so named after the prominent Wilno public leader and physician, proved so highly successful that it soon necessitated the opening of a preparatory institution, the *Proaspirantur*. The *aspirants* and *proaspirants* worked in close collaboration with their teachers, members of the various sections, and the results of their studies were published in the publications of the YIVO. To encourage scholarship in general, and to enable young people of promise to devote their entire time to study and research in particular, numerous fellowships were offered by the YIVO.

Throughout the second half of the last decade the YIVO continued to advance with rapid strides. By the middle of 1939 the institution could point with pride to the following achievements: 30,000 pages of published material, a library containing over 40,000 volumes and 10,000 volumes of periodicals, a folklore collection of over 100,000 items, a priceless collection of autobiographies of young people, and, lastly, its own building. In the same summer the YIVO launched several research projects on a very considerable scale. Then came the catastrophe. Unhappily, the YIVO did not succeed in salvaging any of its materials, except the historical materials in the possession of the Paris branch, and all this treasure has fallen into the hands of the Nazis upon their occupation of Wilno. At present the fate of these collections is unknown, they may have been destroyed, but not the spirit. The spirit of the YIVO has survived and having found shelter on these shores, where a vigorous branch had been in existence since 1925, continues from its quarters at 535 W. 123rd St. to weave the golden thread of Jewish lore.

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not to interfere, the German nation's enthusiasm toward Poland waned. From a prospective ally, Poland became in their eyes once again the enemy who must be crushed. However, in the early days of the German Revolution, the political prisoners with Mieroslawski at their head, were freed from the Moabit prison in Berlin. And when news of the Berlin revolution reached Poznan on March 20, the Poles rejoiced and fraternized with the Germans. To be sure, the German authorities themselves did not know how to take the new events. They gave orders and counter-orders.

A *Polish National Committee* was formed and received the sanction of the political head Beurnmann, while the Pole-hating General Steinaecker, commander of the Poznan citadel, was in favor of suppressing the Polish revolutionary movement. Steinaecker decided to storm the headquarters of the Polish agitators in the "Bazaar," but when his men attacked, they found the building empty. The Committee moved to the city hall and organized a national guard. On March 22 the German army left the city. The *National Committee* began its activity with a proclamation of March 20 stressing that "we as Poles do not wish to and cannot unite with the German Reich." The *Committee* also issued an appeal for amity to the Germans and a proclamation to the peasants that called on them to rise and, at the same time, guaranteed to the participants in the revolution a share in the national lands. Mieroslawski became the head of the military action. The *National Committee*, whose membership kept growing, became an unwieldy deliberating body, but was able to create a number of district committees, to take over the state positions for its nominees, to gain control over the Prussian police and to set up in the provinces Polish security police and volunteer camps. The *Committee* knew the Polish forces were too weak to resist the Germans effectively, but it counted on the Prussian-Russian war to regain freedom for Poland. Nevertheless, the peasants, who hated the Germans and were opposed to the incorporation of Poznan in the Reich, enlisted in large numbers in the Polish armed forces.

In the meantime, the revolution in Berlin, which had never acquired great momentum, was dying out. The possibility of war between Russia and Prussia grew slimmer. Berlin sent instructions hostile to the Polish movement and German officials liquidated the period of Polish-German fraternization. They started a drive to incorporate the Grand Duchy of Poznan into the Reich.

From the moment when the commander in Poznan, General Colomb, assembled some 30,000 men and 40 cannon under his command, the German army began to be insolent and aggressive toward the Poles. German acts of violence, attacks on workers and villages, and the murder of defenseless volunteers from Russian-held Poland at Labiszyn made a Polish rising against Prussia inevitable. The Germans opened a drive against the camps of Polish volunteers, composed mostly of peasant scythe bearers, partly of riflemen, poorly equipped cavalry and petty gentry recruited by Garczynski, Bialoskorski, and Budziszewski in Wrzesnia, Pleszewo, Ksiaz, Miloslaw, Sroda. Having taken the line Bydgoszcz-Poznan-Krotoszyn, General Colomb forced the Polish troops eastward.

At this time, General W. Willisen was sent to Poznan by Berlin to reorganize the Duchy of Poznan and prevail upon the Poles to halt their revolutionary activity. His mission was unsuccessful.

Despite the protests of Polish deputies in Berlin and Frankfurt, the Prussian Government issued a decree to carve up the Duchy. On April 22 the Frankfurt Diet included most of Poznan within the Reich. At this the German

soldiers in Western Poland unleashed a reign of terror. When the Poles fought back, the Berlin Government asked Archbishop Przulski to issue an appeal for the return of law and order. The Polish churchman refused with indignation, replying that he would guarantee peace if the Government recalled the army and began a reorganization of the country. In strong words he condemned the German excesses, the persecution of the clergy, the desecration of graves.

As the German army grew in strength, hope of maintaining the Polish armed forces waned. The Poznan *Committee* dissolved itself. But the deputies of the various camps meeting at Miloslaw, decided to fight the Germans. Leadership of the campaign was entrusted to Mieroslawski.

The crucial day was drawing near. In April, 1848, skirmishes took place between Poles and Prussians at Gostyn, Odolanowo, Raszkw, Kosmin and Grodzisko. Their aftermath was invariably murder, robbery and plunder of Polish property.

On April 29 Colonel Brandt attacked the Polish camp in Ksiaz. He led 3,725 infantry, 606 cavalry and 7 cannon. The commander of the camp, Florian Dabrowski, had but a quarter of this strength, some 1,300 men, most of them poorly equipped scythe bearers. But the well barricaded town defended itself a long time; for two hours Polish riflemen repulsed the cavalry charges and answered artillery fire. When the Germans entered and forced the defenders into the market square, they continued to resist several hours more. The results of this battle, which earned for Brandt promotion to the rank of general, were frightful. One hundred fifty-eight Germans were killed, while more Poles died after the battle than during the encounter. The German chief of staff, Voigts-Rhetz, reported that the Prussians killed the Polish wounded and fired into the military hospital. Brandt triumphantly announced that 211 insurgents were wounded, 100 were burned to death in the flaming hospital, and 300 were buried. Dabrowski, the heroic commander of the camp, died of his wounds.

Garczynski, commander of the camp in Nowe Miasto, had hastened with 900 men to help Dabrowski, but he arrived as the fighting was ending and retreated. He went instead to the aid of Mieroslawski who with his 2,000 men was resisting 4,000 Prussians under von Blumen at Miloslaw. Brilliant Polish strategy cancelled von Blumen's initial success and caused the Poles to win the battle. Prussian losses were 300; Polish losses were 200 dead and seriously wounded. Lack of ammunition, fatigue and poor organization prevented the Poles from following up their victory.

On May 2, Mieroslawski's forces met General Wedell at Wrzesnia. The Polish scythe bearers stubbornly fought the German cavalry and forced the enemy to retreat. But the Poles saw they could not possibly win the war. The officers decided to disband and harass the foe with partisan warfare. Peasants organized into groups and engaged in guerrilla activity at the very gates of Poznan.

Little by little the Germans destroyed these bands. German authorities ordered the army to deal summarily with apprehended insurgents. They were beaten, shaved and marked with copper sulphate on the left ear and shoulder, which often caused fatal wounds. The prisons and citadels in Poznan, Bydgoszcz and Gniezno were filled with insurgents. Treated inhumanly, the Poles were deprived of light and air, and even the officers were not given one warm meal a day.

Thus, the Rising of 1848 in Poznan was crushed. But its memory lingered on and inspired the Poles to present a united front to German aggression throughout the long, dark period of partition.

WHERE THE WAR RAGES

A boundary post
on the frontier of
Poland and
Czechoslovakia
in the western
Tatra Mountains.



Boryslaw oilfields
in southeastern
Poland.

A village church
in Iszkoldz
near Nowogrodek,
northeastern
Poland.

